

CS 473: Algorithms

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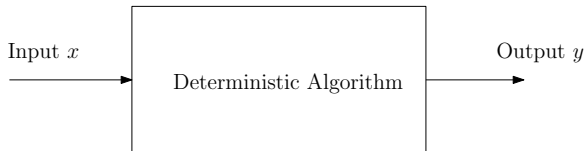
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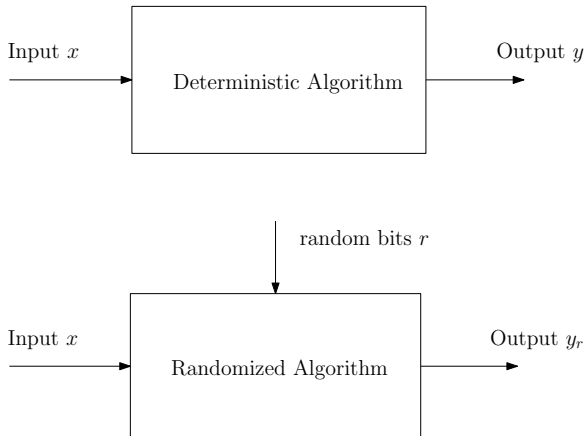
Part I

Introduction to Randomized Algorithms

Randomized Algorithms



Randomized Algorithms



Example: Randomized Quicksort

Quick Sort[Hoare]

- 1 Pick a pivot element from array
- 2 Split array into 3 subarrays: those smaller than pivot, those larger than pivot, and the pivot itself.
- 3 Recursively sort the subarrays, and concatenate them.

Randomized Quick Sort

- 1 Pick a pivot element *uniformly at random* from the array
- 2 Split array into 3 subarrays: those smaller than pivot, those larger than pivot, and the pivot itself.
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Example: Randomized Quicksort

Recall: Quick Sort can take $\Omega(n^2)$ time to sort array of size n .

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Randomized Quick Sort sorts a given array of length n in $O(n \log n)$ expected time.

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Theorem

Randomized Quick Sort sorts a given array of length n in $O(n \log n)$ expected time.

Note: On every input randomized quick sort takes $O(n \log n)$ time in expectation. On every input it may take $\Omega(n^2)$ time with some small probability.

Example: Verifying Matrix Multiplication

Problem

Given three $n \times n$ matrices A, B, C is $AB = C$?

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Deterministic algorithm:

- Multiply A and B and check if equal to C .
- Running time?

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Given three $n \times n$ matrices A, B, C is $AB = C$?

Deterministic algorithm:

- Multiply A and B and check if equal to C .
- Running time? $O(n^3)$ by straight forward approach. $O(n^{2.37})$ with fast matrix multiplication (complicated and impractical).

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Given three $n \times n$ matrices A, B, C is $AB = C$?

Randomized algorithm:

- Pick a random $n \times 1$ vector r .
- Return the answer of the equality $ABr = Cr$.
- Running time?

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Randomized algorithm:

- Pick a random $n \times 1$ vector r .
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- Running time? $O(n^2)$!

Theorem

If $AB = C$ then the algorithm will always say YES. If $AB \neq C$ then the algorithm will say YES with probability at most $1/2$. Can repeat the algorithm 100 times independently to reduce the probability of a false positive to $1/2^{100}$.

Why randomized algorithms?

- Many many applications in algorithms, data structures and computer science!
- In some cases only known algorithms are randomized or randomness is provably necessary.
- Often randomized algorithms are (much) simpler and/or more efficient.
- Several deep connections to mathematics, physics etc.
- ...
- Lots of fun!

Where do I get random bits?

Question: Are true random bits available in practice?

- Can use pseudo-random bits or semi-random bits from nature. Several fundamental unresolved questions in complexity theory on this topic. Beyond the scope of this course.
- In practice pseudo-random generators work quite well in many applications.
- The model is interesting to think in the abstract and is very useful even as a theoretical construct. One can *derandomize* randomized algorithms to obtain deterministic algorithms.

Average case analysis vs Randomized algorithms

Average case analysis:

- Fix a deterministic algorithm.
- Assume inputs comes from a probability distribution.
- Analyze the algorithm's *average* performance over the distribution over inputs.

Randomized algorithms:

- Algorithm uses random bits in addition to input.
- Analyze algorithms *average* performance over the given input where the average is over the random bits that the algorithm uses.
- On each input behaviour of algorithm is random. Analyze worst-case over all inputs of the (average) performance.

Discrete Probability

We restrict attention to finite probability spaces.

Definition

A discrete probability space is a pair (Ω, p) consists of finite set Ω of *elementary* events and function $p : \Omega \rightarrow [0, 1]$ which assigns a probability $p(\omega)$ for each $\omega \in \Omega$ such that $\sum_{\omega \in \Omega} p(\omega) = 1$.

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Example

An unbiased coin. $\Omega = \{H, T\}$ and $p(H) = p(T) = 1/2$.

Example

A 6-sided unbiased die. $\Omega = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}$ and $p(i) = 1/6$ for $1 \leq i \leq 6$.

Example

A biased coin. $\Omega = \{H, T\}$ and $p(H) = 2/3$, $p(T) = 1/3$.

More Examples

Example

Two independent unbiased coins. $\Omega = \{HH, TT, HT, TH\}$ and $p(HH) = p(TT) = p(HT) = p(TH) = 1/4$.

Example

A pair of (highly) correlated dice.

$\Omega = \{(i, j) \mid 1 \leq i \leq 6, 1 \leq j \leq 6\}$.

$p(i, i) = 1/6$ for $1 \leq i \leq 6$ and $p(i, j) = 0$ if $i \neq j$.

Events

Definition

Given a probability space (Ω, p) an *event* is a subset of Ω . In other words an event is a collection of elementary events. The probability of an event A , denoted by $p(A)$, is $\sum_{\omega \in A} p(\omega)$. The complement of an event $A \subseteq \Omega$ is the event $\Omega \setminus A$ frequently denoted by \bar{A} .

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Example

A pair of independent dice. $\Omega = \{(i, j) \mid 1 \leq i \leq 6, 1 \leq j \leq 6\}$.

- Let A be the event that the sum of the two numbers on the dice is even. Then $A = \{(i, j) \in \Omega \mid (i + j) \text{ is even}\}$.
 $p(A) = |A|/36 = 1/2$.
- Let B be the event that the first die has 1. Then $B = \{(1, 1), (1, 2), (1, 3), (1, 4), (1, 5), (1, 6)\}$.
 $p(B) = 6/36 = 1/6$.

Independent Events

Definition

Given a probability space (Ω, p) and two events A, B are *independent* if and only if $p(A \cap B) = p(A)p(B)$. Otherwise they are *dependent*. In other words A, B independent implies one does not affect the other.

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Example

Two coins. $\Omega = \{HH, TT, HT, TH\}$ and
 $p(HH) = p(TT) = p(HT) = p(TH) = 1/4$.

- A is the event that the first coin is heads and B is the event that second coin is tails. A, B are independent.
- A is the event that the two coins are different. B is the event that the second coin is heads. A, B independent.
- A is the event that both are not tails and B is event that

Random Variables

Definition

Given a probability space (Ω, p) a (real-valued) random variable X over Ω is a function that maps each elementary event to a real number. In other words $X : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$.

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- $X : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ where $X(i) = i \bmod 2$.
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Definition

A binary random variable is one that takes on values in $\{0, 1\}$.

Indicator Random Variables

Special type of random variables that are quite useful.

Definition

Given a probability space (Ω, p) and an event $A \subseteq \Omega$ the indicator random variable X_A is a binary random variable where $X_A(\omega) = 1$ if $\omega \in A$ and $X_A(\omega) = 0$ if $\omega \notin A$.

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Example

A 6-sided unbiased die. $\Omega = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}$ and $p(i) = 1/6$ for $1 \leq i \leq 6$. Let A be the even that i is divisible by 3. Then $X_A(i) = 1$ if $i = 3, 6$ and 0 otherwise.

Expectation

Definition

For a random variable X over a probability space (Ω, p) the *expectation* of X is defined as $\sum_{\omega \in \Omega} p(\omega)X(\omega)$. In other words the average value of X according to the probabilities given by p .

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- $X : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ where $X(i) = i \bmod 2$. Then $E[X] = 1/2$.
- $Y : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ where $Y(i) = i^2$. Then

$$E[Y] = \sum_{i=1}^6 \frac{1}{6} \cdot i^2 = 91/\cancel{2.6}$$

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- $Y : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ where $Y(i) = i^2$. Then $E[Y] = \sum_{i=1}^6 \frac{1}{6} \cdot i^2 = 91/2$. ~~6~~

Proposition

For an indicator variable X_A , $E[X_A] = p(A)$.

Linearity of Expectation

Lemma

Let X, Y be two random variables over a probability space (Ω, p) .
Then $E[X + Y] = E[X] + E[Y]$.

Proof.

$$\begin{aligned} E[X + Y] &= \sum_{\omega \in \Omega} p(\omega)(X(\omega) + Y(\omega)) \\ &= \sum_{\omega \in \Omega} p(\omega)X(\omega) + \sum_{\omega \in \Omega} p(\omega)Y(\omega) = E[X] + E[Y]. \end{aligned}$$



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Corollary

$$E[a_1X_1 + a_2X_2 + \dots + a_nX_n] = \sum_{i=1}^n a_iE[X_i].$$

Types of Randomized Algorithms

Typically one encounters the following types:

- *Las Vegas randomized algorithms*: for a given input x output of algorithm is always correct but the running time is a random variable. In this case we are interested in analyzing the *expected* running time.

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- *Monte Carlo randomized algorithms*: for a given input x the running time is deterministic but the output is random; correct with some probability. In this case we are interested in analyzing the *probability* of the correct output (and also the running time).
- Algorithms whose running time and output may both be random.

Analyzing Las Vegas Algorithms

Deterministic algorithm Q for a problem Π :

- Let $Q(x)$ be the time for Q to run on input x of length $|x|$.
- Worst-case analysis: run time on worst input for a given size n .

$$T_{wc}(n) = \max_{x:|x|=n} Q(x)$$

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Randomized algorithm Q for a problem Π :

- Let $Q(x)$ be the time for Q to run on input x of length $|x|$.
- $Q(x)$ is a random variable: depends on random bits used by Q
- $E[Q(x)]$ is the expected time for Q on x
- Worst-case analysis: expected time on worst input of size n

$$T_{rand-wc}(n) = \max_{x:|x|=n} E[Q(x)]$$

Analyzing Monte Carlo Algorithms

Randomized algorithm Q for a problem Π :

- Let $Q(x)$ be the time for Q to run on input x of length $|x|$.
For Monte Carlo, assumption is that run time is deterministic.
- Let $P(x)$ be the probability that Q is correct on x
- $P(x)$ is a random variable: depends on random bits used by Q
- Worst-case analysis: success probability on worst input

$$P_{rand-wc}(n) = \min_{x:|x|=n} P(x)$$

Part II

Randomized Quick Sort and Selection

Randomized Quick Sort

Randomized Quick Sort

- 1 Pick a pivot element *uniformly at random* from the array
- 2 Split array into 3 subarrays: those smaller than pivot, those larger than pivot, and the pivot itself.
- 3 Recursively sort the subarrays, and concatenate them.

Example

- array: 16, 12, 14, 20, 5, 3, 18, 19, 1

Analysis via Recurrence

- Given array A of size n let $Q(A)$ be number of comparisons of randomized quick sort on A .
- Note that $Q(A)$ is a random variable
- Let A_{left}^i and A_{right}^i be the left and right arrays obtained if pivot is rank i element of A .

$$Q(A) = n + \sum_{i=1}^n \Pr[\text{pivot has rank } i] (Q(A_{\text{left}}^i) + Q(A_{\text{right}}^i))$$

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Since each element of A has probability exactly of $1/n$ of being chosen:

$$Q(A) = n + \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{1}{n} (Q(A_{\text{left}}^i) + Q(A_{\text{right}}^i))$$

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Let $T(n) = \max_{A:|A|=n} E[Q(A)]$ be the worst-case expected running time of randomized quick sort on arrays of size n .

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We have, for any A :

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Therefore, by linearity of expectation:

$$E[Q(A)] = n + \sum_{i=1}^n \Pr[\text{pivot has rank } i] (E[Q(A_{\text{left}}^i)] + E[Q(A_{\text{right}}^i)])$$

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$$\Rightarrow E[Q(A)] \leq n + \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{1}{n} (T(i-1) + T(n-i))$$

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We derived:

$$E[Q(A)] \leq n + \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{1}{n} (T(i-1) + T(n-i))$$

Note that above holds for any A of size n . Therefore

$$\max_{A:|A|=n} E[Q(A)] = T(n) \leq n + \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{1}{n} (T(i-1) + T(n-i))$$

Solving the Recurrence

$$T(n) \leq n + \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{1}{n} (T(i-1) + T(n-i))$$

with base case $T(1) = 0$.

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Lemma

$$T(n) = O(n \log n).$$

Proof.

(Guess and) Verify by induction. □

A Slick Analysis

Let $Q(A)$ be number of comparisons done on input array A :

- For $1 \leq i < j < n$ let R_{ij} be the event that rank i element is compared with rank j element.
- X_{ij} is the indicator random variable for R_{ij} . That is, $X_{ij} = 1$ if rank i is compared with rank j element, otherwise 0.

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$$Q(A) = \sum_{1 \leq i < j \leq n} X_{ij}$$

and hence by linearity of expectation,

$$E[Q(A)] = \sum_{1 \leq i < j \leq n} E[X_{ij}] = \sum_{1 \leq i < j \leq n} \Pr[R_{ij}]$$

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Proof.

Let $a_1, \dots, a_i, \dots, a_j, \dots, a_n$ be sort of A . Let

$$S = \{a_i, a_{i+1}, \dots, a_j\}$$

Observation: If pivot is chosen outside S then all of S either in left array or right array.

Observation: a_i and a_j separated when a pivot is chosen from S for the first time. Once separated no comparison.

Observation: a_i is compared with a_j if and only if either a_i or a_j is chosen as a pivot from S at separation.

continued . . .



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Let $a_1, \dots, a_i, \dots, a_j, \dots, a_n$ be sort of A . Let

$$S = \{a_i, a_{i+1}, \dots, a_j\}$$

Observation: a_i is compared with a_j if and only if either a_i or a_j is chosen as a pivot from S at separation.

Observation: Given that pivot is chosen from S the probability that it is a_i or a_j is exactly $2/|S| = 2/(j-i+1)$ since the pivot is chosen uniformly at random from the array. \square

A Slick Analysis

$$E[Q(A)] = \sum_{1 \leq i < j \leq n} E[X_{ij}] = \sum_{1 \leq i < j \leq n} \Pr[R_{ij}]$$

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Lemma

$$\Pr[R_{ij}] = \frac{2}{(j-i+1)}.$$

$$\begin{aligned} E[Q(A)] &= \sum_{1 \leq i < j \leq n} \Pr[R_{ij}] = \sum_{1 \leq i < j \leq n} \frac{2}{j-i+1} \\ &= \sum_{1 \leq i < n} \sum_{i < j \leq n} \frac{2}{j-i+1} = 2 \sum_{1 \leq i < n} \sum_{i < j \leq n} \frac{1}{j-i+1} \\ &= 2 \sum_{1 \leq i < n} (H_{n-i+1} - 1) \leq 2 \sum_{1 \leq i < n} H_n \\ &\leq 2nH_n = O(n \log n) \end{aligned}$$

Randomized Quick Selection

Input Unsorted array A of n integers

Goal Find the j 'th smallest number in A (*rank j number*)

Randomized Quick Selection

- 1 Pick a pivot element *uniformly at random* from the array
- 2 Split array into 3 subarrays: those smaller than pivot, those larger than pivot, and the pivot itself.
- 3 Return pivot if rank of pivot is j
- 4 Otherwise recurse on one of the arrays depending on j and their sizes.

Algorithm for Randomized Selection

Assume for simplicity that A has distinct elements.

Random-SELECT(A, j):

Pick pivot x uniformly at random from A

Partition A into A_{less} , x , and A_{greater} using x as pivot

If $(|A_{\text{less}}|) = j - 1$ return x

Else if $(|A_{\text{less}}|) \geq j$

 return SELECT(A_{less}, j)

Else

 return SELECT($A_{\text{greater}}, j - |A_{\text{less}}| - 1$)

Analysis via Recurrence

- Given array A of size n let $Q(A)$ be number of comparisons of randomized selection on A for selecting rank j element.
- Note that $Q(A)$ is a random variable
- Let A_{less}^i and A_{greater}^i be the left and right arrays obtained if pivot is rank i element of A .
- Algorithm recurses on A_{less}^i if $j < i$ and recurses on A_{greater}^i if $j > i$ and terminates if $j = i$.

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- Algorithm recurses on A_{less}^i if $j < i$ and recurses on A_{greater}^i if $j > i$ and terminates if $j = i$.

$$\begin{aligned}
 Q(A) &= n + \sum_{i=1}^{j-1} \Pr[\text{pivot has rank } i] Q(A_{\text{greater}}^i) \\
 &\quad + \sum_{i=j+1}^n \Pr[\text{pivot has rank } i] Q(A_{\text{less}}^i)
 \end{aligned}$$

Analyzing the Recurrence

As in quick sort we obtain the following recurrence where $T(n)$ is the worst-case expected time.

$$T(n) \leq n + \frac{1}{n} \left(\sum_{i=1}^{j-1} T(n-i) + \sum_{i=j}^n T(i-1) \right)$$

Theorem

$$T(n) = O(n).$$

Proof.

(Guess and) Verify by induction (see next slide). □

Analyzing the recurrence

Theorem

$$T(n) = O(n).$$

Prove by induction that $T(n) \leq \alpha n$ for some constant $\alpha \geq 1$ to be fixed later.

Base case: $n = 1$, we have $T(1) = 0$ since no comparisons needed and hence $T(1) \leq \alpha$.

Induction step: Assume $T(k) \leq \alpha k$ for $1 \leq k < n$ and prove it for $T(n)$. We have by the recurrence:

$$\begin{aligned} T(n) &\leq n + \frac{1}{n} \left(\sum_{i=1}^{j-1} T(n-i) + \sum_{i=j}^n T(i-1) \right) \\ &\leq n + \frac{\alpha}{n} \left(\sum_{i=1}^{j-1} (n-i) + \sum_{i=j}^n (i-1) \right) \quad \text{by applying induction} \end{aligned}$$

Analyzing the recurrence

$$\begin{aligned}
 T(n) &\leq n + \frac{\alpha}{n} \left(\sum_{i=1}^{j-1} (n-i) + \sum_{i=j}^n (i-1) \right) \\
 &\leq n + \frac{\alpha}{n} \left((j-1)(2n-j)/2 + (n-j+1)(n+j-2)/2 \right) \\
 &\leq n + \frac{\alpha}{2n} (n^2 + 2nj - 2j^2 - 3n + 4j - 2) \\
 &\quad \text{above expression maximized when } j = (n+1)/2: \text{ calculus} \\
 &\leq n + \frac{\alpha}{2n} (3n^2/2 - n) \quad \text{substituting } (n+1)/2 \text{ for } j \\
 &\leq n + 3\alpha n/4 \\
 &\leq \alpha n \quad \text{for any constant } \alpha \geq 4
 \end{aligned}$$

Comments on analyzing the recurrence

- Algebra looks messy but intuition suggest that the median is the hardest case and hence can plug $j = n/2$ to simplify without calculus
- Analyzing recurrences comes with practice and after a while one can see things more intuitively

John Von Neumann:

Young man, in mathematics you don't understand things. You just get used to them.